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ABSTRACT

The philosophy and key concepts, goals and objectives, components of effective classroom management, behavior modification techniques, and a positive approach to classroom management are discussed in this paper. Principles and procedures of classroom management are discussed and ways in which they may be adapted to existing classroom practices are suggested. The basic principles which serve to guide teachers in employing behavior modification procedures are set forth with specific suggestions for establishing procedural steps to make them understandable and usable. A list of do's and don'ts in classroom management is also offered. A discussion of management by objectives used in business and industry is accompanied by specific suggestions on how these techniques may be applied to classroom situations to insure maximum learning among Black youth. In considering a positive approach to discipline, the value of positive reinforcement is emphasized. Descriptions of behavior modification techniques include discussions on: (1) self-management approaches to behavior modificaton; (2) managing classroom group behavior; (3) management and contingency contracting; (4) rules of contingency contracting; (5) role modeling; and (6) individualization of instruction. Effective methods of punishment are discussed, as well as the potential of extinction and shaping techniques for behavior change. (JD)

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# CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND SCHOOL DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING TEACHERS OF BLACK YOUTH

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# CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND SCHOOL DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING TEACHERS OF BLACK YOUTH

Classroom management is that set of strategies a teacher uses to establish and maintain those classroom conditions that facilitate effective and efficient teaching and learning. The process of developing management skills has been sadly neglected in teacher training programs. Because of the absence of a science of discipline, a failure to use what we already know about human growth and development, and the lack of skills training for and experience with the day-to-day problems of modern day school problems, new teachers find themselves unprepared in classroom management. The development of these skills will assist teachers in organizing and administering the classroom so that they will not spend the majority of their time confronting management and discipline problems rather than promoting the type of learning they have been trained to promote.

Too often, teacher's colleges have not prepared teachers to cope with the new social problems. To insure maximum learning among Black youth, teachers must be able to shape, not only academic achievement, but also social behavior, and guarantee themselves an environment in which uninterrupted learning can take place. A growing body of teacher effectiveness research suggests that there is a positive relationship between certain teacher classroom management behaviors and desirable learner outcomes. While this research has not shown one particular classroom management approach to be superior, it has shown that certain managerial strategies are effective. Thus, it can be claimed that the appropriate use of those strategies is important in fostering desirable student outcomes.

This paper addresses the philosophy and key concepts, goals and objectives, components of effective classroom management, behavior modification techniques and a positive approach to classroom management.

EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

I. Introduction

II. Principles and Procedures of Classroom Management

III. Basic Principles in Employing Behavior Modification

IV. Some "Do's" and "Don'ts" in Classroom Management

V. Management by Objectives go to School

VI. A Positive Approach to Discipline

VII. Observation and Recording of Behavior

VIII. Behavior Modification Techniques

- A. Self-Management Approaches to Behavior Modification
- B. Managing Classroom Group Behavior
- C. Management and Contingency Contracting
- D. Rules of Contingency Contracting
- E. Modeling: A Technique for Behavior Change
- F. Individualization of Instruction

IX. A Look at Punishment

X. Extinction and Shaping Techniques for Behavior Change

## Effective Classroom Management

### Introduction

Teachers, through the ages, have devised their own formulas for managing their classrooms. In recent years, however, much attention has been paid to behavior modification and its approaches to bring about changed behavior. Controversies have been set off with varying degrees of attitudes and views that range from total acceptance of its principles and procedures to total rejection of its concepts. Although teachers and school administrators should certainly not take the approaches at face value without question, it is hoped that the information set forth in this chapter will provide insight into understanding human behavior and experimenting with new ways of changing undesirable behavior practices. On these pages the reader will find ideas and answers to such concerns as:

1. Principles and procedures of classroom management, and adapting some of these to their own existing practices.
2. What do we know about motivation, and the role of motivation for continuous learning and achievement? How do we motivate children?
3. Ways of initiating modification techniques for undesirable behavior in children and youth. These major techniques or approaches include: modification through self-management, changing group behavior, contingency management, modeling and initiation, using individualized instruction, mild punishment, and extinction and shaping approaches.

So often an article or book is so esoterically theoretical that teachers find it impractical to use. On the other hand, it may be so mundanely practical that it offers little more tha a cook-book and how-to-do-it approach to diagnosing and solving problems. We will try to avoid both

extremes in these chapters. We also believe that the management of groups of children is inseparable from teaching children. This volume includes both information on management, with all its ramifications, and selective teaching strategies. These strategies include use of technology and consideration for the future of the students, most of whom will be adult citizens and parents in the twenty-first century.

It should be emphasized that we are dealing with children's observable behavior rather than with medical diagnosis. The role of the teachers, then, is to use their knowledge concerning principles of behavior and so arrange the learning environment that they can plan to modify the student's behavior systematically and in a predictable direction.

Motivational patterns are learned, therefore they are one of the most challenging tasks for classroom teachers. Children in one classroom may come from a number of cultural and ethnic backgrounds, where their heritage provides them with different ways of coping with and satisfying some very basic needs. The school environment must therefore provide an environment with many kinds of rewards and punishments designed to motivate children. These "incentives," in order to be effective motivators, must provide some degree of need satisfaction. These rewards may be anything from a gold star or an "A" grade to released time to play baseball or help decorate for a school dance. One thing is certain; all students will not look upon each reward with equal satisfaction. The same applies to punishment. Isolating one child to a chair outside the classroom door is food for one and poison for another.

This chapter attempts to deal with a scientific way of developing a behavior modification program with classes. It simply requires that teachers be aware of basic principles of human growth and behavior control and utilize them in a consistent manner. The analysis and modifi-

cation procedures require no tremendous changes in classroom organization and teaching methods, but will offer some organized approaches to classroom management.

The key to an effective classroom environment is the teacher and his/her attitude, expression of respect and love for children, and balanced, consistent operating procedure. If the teacher is able to convince the children that he/she likes every one of them, but dislikes some of the children's behavior, the teacher is well on the way to building trust and respect essential to behavior change.

Principles and Procedures for Classroom Management

The perplexing problems of classroom management can become challenging for the teacher. However, to do this, one must be willing to spend some time in studying and practicing a few principles and procedures for a more systematic approach to management. There is a distinction between classroom management and teaching. Management is planning, organizing, guiding, controlling and evaluating people, events, and results so that effective teaching of individuals and groups can take place. Teaching, on the other hand, is the act or art of instructing and imparting knowledge or skills to persons considered learners. Good teachers are competent classroom managers, for the degree to which teaching is effective depends largely upon the degree to which the classroom is successfully managed.

Classroom management is not a complex or difficult task if understood and systematically employed. A teacher plans as he/she sets forth goals and behavioral objectives to be accomplished.

Organizing requires the arrangement and disposition of human and material resources available in the best way to meet the goals and objectives. Guiding is a personal quality from which the teacher must muster skills in inspiring, motivating, and challenging learners to reach previously set goals and objectives. Controlling is an ever conscious effort to stay clearly within the framework of the desired learning environment. Evaluation is a continuous process of measuring the effectiveness of the management structure, behavior patterns, and learning achieved. Within the management framework, ways and means must be found and tried for the changing of behavior as well as for good teaching. Behavior modification and the procedures for acquiring change are basic to good management.

Behavior modification is the term most frequently used when addressing the principle of behavioral control in human beings. This concept was generated by years of laboratory research with animals. Behavior analysts then tried their behavioral control methods on mentally ill patients. Success of varying degrees was experienced in mental institutions, however, the next major proving ground would be in the educational environment. In the late 1960's and early 1970's, behavior modifiers began using complex token systems in the classroom, similar to those proven successful in the mental hospital settings. The token system, used very well with large groups, was one in which the student earned a reward which could be cashed in later for free time and preferred privileges.

Basic Principles in Employing Behavior Modification

Jack R. Gallagher set forth a list of ten basic principles which serve to guide teachers in employing behavior modification procedures. The principles are applicable to both individuals and

groups.

1. Since behavior is learned as a result of environmental consequences, the teacher should keep the law of reinforcement firmly in mind throughout the day.

2. Reinforce a child when he exhibits desirable behavior and ignore him when he exhibits undesirable behavior.

3. Except in rare cases, use positive reinforcement rather than punishment.

4. Reinforce desirable behavior immediately.

5. When first modifying a behavior, reinforce every instance of the desirable behavior, later, after the behavior is acquired, reinforcement should not be presented every time the direct response takes place, only occasionally.

6. Make high probability activities dependent or contingent on the performance of low probability reinforcers.

7. Use the principles of pairing (e.g., good grades with money) to expand the range of effective reinforcers.

8. When a desired response is complex and involves several steps at once, reward approximations toward the desired response.

9. When an action is desirable under specific circumstances, it should be reinforced only under these conditions.

10. If the behavior has been reinforced to occur frequently, but is no longer desirable, it can be extinguished by no longer reinforcing it. [1]

A teacher can glean from these and a variety of sources a suitable approach and a clear understanding of the basic principles. Becker, Thomas, and Carnine (1971 [2]) and Dollar in (1972 [3]) recommend seven ingredients for management. Blackham and Silberman state these in procedural steps which make them understandable and usable.

1. Specify in positive terms the desired classroom behavior. Students should know the rules and standards of the classroom behavior, for if they are not specified, students will "test its limits" until they discover what is and is not acceptable.

2. Individualize learning tasks so every student can succeed. Much nontasks or disruptive classroom behavior is often a result of

uninteresting or too difficult learning activities. Most learning activities can be broken down into units that successively approximate the learning objective.

3. Specify consequences for both desirable and undesirable behavior. If behavior is a function of its consequences, then appropriate behavior is maintained by employing both positive and negative consequences. However, desirable behavior cannot be achieved if negative consequences are used more frequently than positive ones. A good general rule is to positively reinforce appropriate behavior and ignore (and thus extinguish) the deviant behavior that is not injurious or destructive.

4. Determine when and how reinforcement will be administered. To increase the desired behavior most rapidly, the teacher should reinforce the target behavior every time it occurs. Although material reinforcers and reinforcing events may be used initially, praise should be paired with them from the very beginning. The reinforcement property of praise can be established and used in the future to maintain the desirable behavior.

5. Develop an individual and group reinforcement system. An individual reinforcement system promotes desirable individual social and academic behavior and greatly facilitates classroom management. A group reinforcement system can also provide dividends by promoting both individual and group goals.

6. Model the behavior students should emulate. Children imitate models that are prestigious, warm, and control power resources. If the teacher's behavior style is consistently reinforcing, students are likely to reflect it in their response to other students.

7. Develop your reinforcement properties as a teacher. When teachers meet their students on the first day of school, their ability to promote desirable academic and social behavior is largely unknown.

The students who have had "positive experiences" with previous teachers have learned that appropriate behavior is rewarded by teacher approval. [4]

Some "Do's" and "Don'ts" In Classroom Management

In classroom management, teachers should have firmly fixed in their own minds some practices they follow and some they avoid. These "do's" and "don'ts" can be effective measures if they become guidelines within the management framework. Teachers, administrators, and writers have their own lists. Set forth below are some groupings which I believe to be the most essential guidelines for consideration.

1. Make it clear from the beginning what behavior is acceptable and what is not. Gain the children's attention and be sure your directions are understood.

2. Build on the positive and minimize the negative and be more concerned with future behavior than past misconduct. The teacher's positive modeling is catching.

3. When punishment must be used, do not make the offense personal, do not make threats, make the punishment suit the crime, and handle the discipline problem promptly. An attempt should be made immediately after the punishment to establish a positive relationship with the offender.

4. Refrain from yelling and keep your voice at a moderate level. Refrain from sarcastic comments. Admit your mistakes, and children in turn will respect you.

5. Treat children, even small ones, as equal human beings. They look to you for guidance, so guide them in assuming independence, a sense of responsibility, and make cooperation and eventual self-control a goal. Work for mutual understanding and respect.

6. Be consistent in your rewards and punishment. Make the punishment fit the behavior, and see behavior in its proper perspective. Avoid making a serious issue out of trivial incidents and refuse to give attention to the least rumpus.

7. Distinguish between the deed and the doer, and make the youngster feel that you still like him/her even though you dislike his/her antisocial behavior.

8. As a last resort, send the child from your classroom for administrator's punishment. Seek ways to change the misbehavior within the classroom environment.

9. Avoid double standards between you and the children and between students. Be fair and check constantly on your personal prejudices. They are usually there and children often detect them before your fellow adults will.

10. Commend a child when his/her behavior has improved and compliment children as individuals and as a group when behavior and achievements have earned it, and use the class community when necessary to express disapproval of antisocial behavior.

Management by Objectives go to School

Business and industry have long known and used the effective management techniques known as MBO or Management by Objectives. Schools and colleges are now adapting these techniques and procedures to accommodate their pressing demands for accountability, efficiency, and productivity. Classroom teachers would do well to be familiar with the tenets of this approach to management of classrooms. Many business firms such as General Motors, Du Pont, and General Electric have adopted one system or another of systematic management. As we explore this topic, let us think of MBO in its broadest sense.

Management by objectives is not a complex system; however, it is a scientific system of management. Management people are deluged with pressures from all sides to consider human relations, support management, discipline, linear programming, organization contract, evaluation, motivation, assessment of methods, communications, values, etcetera. Adapting or paraphrasing some of the MBO premises let us fit them into some of the most simple and some of the most complex management concerns of classroom teachers:

Classroom management has a setting in an environmental situation provided by the school for each classroom. This environment has changed with swiftness over the years and it imposes new requirements on schools and on the individual classroom managers.

Management by objectives is a way of managing aimed at meeting the new requirements and demands of the changing youth populace and a changing environment.

When organizational goals are set, subgoals and objectives have to be identified, and orderly procedures for distributing individual responsibilities are made known in such a way that the combined efforts are directed toward achieving those goals, subgoals, and objectives.

Management by objectives assumes that teachers' behavior is more important than teachers' personality, and that this behavior, teaching techniques, and evaluation procedures should be defined in terms of results measured against established goals, rather than in terms of commonality goals for all classroom teachers or by common or unified methods of managing.

Like business and industry, classroom management presumes that while participation is highly desirable in goal setting and decision making, its principle merit lies in its social and democratic values, rather than in its effects on achievements, outcome, or productivity. Participation by students may have a favorable impact and in any case it seldom defeats the purpose.

Management by objectives regards the successful classroom teacher/manager as a manager of situations. These situations are best eliminated, solved, or otherwise dealt with by defining the purposes and goals of the school and the managerial behavior best calculated to achieve those purposes and goals. This means that there is no one best pattern of management.

It goes without saying that schools, and surely classes cannot transfer the successful management systems used by Honeywell Inc., Parke Davis, and others lock, stock, and barrel into school operations. However, we can glean from them some simplified guidelines and procedures which have proven to be most successful.

What then is the system of management by objectives? According to George S. Odiorne.

The System of Management by Objectives can be described as a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major area of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contributions of each of its members. [5]

Just as the primary effect of operating with management by objectives in business is to be seen in such tangible results as improved profits, more growth, lower costs, and improved plant and environment, the effect on education shows in higher individual productivity and achievement, a desirable change in behavior, more and better self-control and self-direction, increased knowledge, more effective communication skills, and, in general, improved citizens and team members.

Let us look at some other features of MBO in business and industry and attempt to parallel them to school and classroom management.

Business and Industry

One of the most obvious facts about management is that there are effective and ineffective bosses. An organization may have an impressive array of experts and still fall dismally short of its objectives.

The same organization, headed by a different manager (or the same manager using different management methods), will succeed brilliantly where the previosus manager (or previous methods) had failed. How to achieve this turning around of an organization is often the subject of much discussion. One conclusion is that managing is a function or activity that affects total organizational performance. In fact, it makes the other functions effective or ineffective.

Schools and Classrooms

The same class, headed by a different teacher (or the same teacher using different management methods), will succeed brilliantly whereas the previous teacher (or previous methods) had failed. How to achieve this turning around of a classroom of children is often the subject of much discussion. One conclusion is that managing a class of youth is a function or activity that affects the total behavior of the class and its social and academic performance. In fact, it makes teaching and learning effective or ineffective.

Motivating the Class

Motivating is a force within us that directs us to behave in a certain way. Although not an indispensable condition for learning, it might be regarded as a general readiness to enter into a learning situation. Motivation might be further defines as a combination of forces that initiate, control, and sustain one's behavior toward a goal. The well-known

psychologist Ausubel (1968) views motivation as follows:

> After fifty years or more of research on motivation, perhaps the most striking conclusion that emerges from consideration of the staggering mass of research data and theory in this area is how little we know about it, and how much is still a matter of conjecture and speculative preference. [6]

However, experienced teachers know that the successful student builds on his/her successes, and motivation is derived from the feedback that follows success. School environments usually provide many kinds of rewards and punishments intended to motivate students. An often cited experiment by Hurlock (1925) shows that "incentives that provide rewards are more powerful motivators than incentives that provide mild punishment." [7] Children learn to respond to the set of motives existing in a given school and consequently build a habit system of motivation. When children are motivated, they are in a state of readiness and are, therefore, willing to undertake a course of action consistent with their state of tension. Motivation, in effect, involves fulfilling certain needs. Maslow (1954) has classified five categories of needs:

1. Physiological needs (e.g., thirst, hunger, sex)
2. Safety needs (e.g., survival, security, order)
3. Needs to belong (e.g., identification, friendship, love)
4. Esteem needs (e.g., success, self-respect, confidence)
5. Needs for self-actualization (e.g., desire to fulfill oneself) [8]

There is an important difference between Maslow's first three basic needs and the last two higher-order needs. Teachers need to distinguish between the two general classes of motives in terms of procedures used in dealing with them. They involve both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

Extrinsic motivation is motivation that depends on outside or external motives and rewards. These are referred to as context factors. In school programs designed to alter behavior through external rewards or consequences, it is assumed that the learner will ultimately want to engage in appropriate

behavior. Because the student will want to acquire the social awards of peer groups and teachers, he/she will continue to achieve through the incentives used during the shaping of his/her behavior. Extrinsic motivation is associated with Maslow's three lower basic needs. It should be noted that in classroom planning there is a distinction between long-term and short-term objectives and goals. Long-term goals cannot be seen or understood by most children. Short-term or more moderate objectives and goals will prove more successful when extrinsic motivation for learners is applied. This is especially true with some children of disadvantaged backgrounds.

Intrinsic motivation refers to content factors and is the basis of most modern theories concerning activity and discovery, since exploration and curiosity are intrinsic to most people. There is no observable or quantifiable "payoff" for such behavior. It is internal and the rewards are innate in nature and need. Often, the real power of intrinsic motivation has been overlooked or too readily associated with permissiveness and nonstructured styles of teaching.

A complexity of motives for learning will always be present with school children. They will want to please their peer group as well as their parents and teachers, and their own sense of mastery needs to be developed. At the same time, the wider world is opening up, bringing forth new interest and new curiosity, and school work becomes a lesser part of the quickened life of the growing youth. The school culture itself may be either anti-intellectual or very intellectual. Within this complex picture there is the subtle attraction of certain subjects and certain teachers that certain children will find interesting, inviting, and exciting.

In the day-to-day dealing with students, teachers find both positive and negative forces operating in motivation to attend school. Early-child-

hood teachers find that young children sometimes have rather weak motivation to attend school, preferring the familiar environment of mother and home. Usually the anticipation of pleasant rivalry, play, and other motives of curiosity about the new school environment will be a sufficient positive motivation to balance or overcome the negative effects of the motivation to avoid school. This same complexity of positive and negative forces are at work with older children. Riessman (1962), in studying lower-class children, found that they dislike school for cultural reasons and because of the domination by females who hold high the virtues of neatness, cleanliness, and orderliness. [9] However, it is noteworthy that Wilson (1959) found that the same category of children did not have negative motivation regarding learning, or the value of an education, but only toward schooling and school attendance. [10] Wallen and Wallen (1978) comment on research of others in recognizing the deficiences in using rewards and mild punishment to motivate children to learn. [11] The research seems to have been directed recently toward the examination of other motivating factors. Berlyne (1960), for example, found powerful effects of such motivating factors as curisosity,[12] and Montgomery (1954) found motivating factors in the opportunities the task offers for exploration.[13] Hill (1956) reported on activity, [14] Harlow (1950) on manipulation, [15] and Terrell on motivating factors. [16] The anticipation of gaining a sense of mastery or competence was found by White (L959) to be a motivating factor. [17]

These factors have come through so strongly in research that Ausubel, as pointed out earlier, has elevated them to the category of needs. Feather (1961) found that those with high need of achievement learn more effectively.[18] Knight and Sassenrath (1966) [19] found a tendency to reach solutions in problem-solving tasks more often than do those with low achievement needs as reported by French and Thomas (1958). [20]

To generalize on the research on motivation, one might say that children will be motivated to learn when their instructional and learning activities and programs are organized to satisfy basic needs. An example of student activity resulting in a higher level of motivation is given in Lesson A below. Lesson B has the same objective, but lesson A will likely result in a higher level of student motivation.

Lesson A. The teacher has students pretend that they are to spend $20.00 for family Christmas presents. They are given old mail order catalogues and instructed to shop until they find gifts that total only a few pennies more than $20.00. On their papers they are to list each recipient's name, the gift selected, the cost of each gift, and the cost of all gifts. The gifts should be appropriate for the recipients. Students are encouraged to share ideas and catalogues with each other.

Lesson B. Students are given a printed worksheet containing fifty problems, such as: 24 + 18 = _____. They are to work alone.

Wallen and Wallen set forth three basic psychological needs and identified them as: (1) the need to be an active learner; (2) the need to socialize; and (3) the need to feel confident and secure.[21]

Children and youth find great satisfaction in discovery, in creativity, in speculation, and in experimentation. They like to move around as active learners. This characteristic has been recognized by psychologists and educators for a long time. They like to move around physically and do things and have their own failures and successes. They actively seek and provoke stimuli. When teachers require students, especially young ones, to sit still quietly for long periods of time they are robbing them of some of their most driving capacities to learn.

Even children who generally dislike school like the socializing aspect usually associated with recess time, physical education, and a visit with friends in the cafeteria. There is the intrinsic need to socialize. Where teachers fail to grasp important learning opportunities is when they do not permit children to use this socialization desire in the classroom. Children learn from each other, and learn cooperation and the value of helping their neighbors. Socialization, structured in the classroom, can be a learning opportunity.

The need to feel confident and secure follows one through all levels of the education process. An emotionally secure learning environment provides a fertile field for academic and social achievement. Research tells us that the learner who has a safe and secure home base will feel freer to venture into more risky channels of learning, both physically and intellectually. The degree to which learners will actively explore and socialize is dictated by the degree of security they feel and the confidence they possess.

Behavior Modification Techniques ——>

Self- Management Approach to Behavior Modification

The development of self-control should be a major objective in all classroom management plans. Teachers should approach self-control by helping children to identify a target behavior, monitoring the occurrence of that behavior and arranging

the best environment for attaining that desired behavior. Once teachers know and understand target behaviors, they should not rely on excuses for deficiencies, but make every effort constantly to correct them. Effective self-control methods should be designed to train students in the habit of facing and solving learning and behavior problems.

Students become far better equipped to cope with problems if they develop the habit of thinking of ways they can solve problems for themselves. The concept of self-discipline is essentially that of using one's own resources to the maximum to reach clearly defined goals. This concept can be taught and practiced in the classroom. It appears that assuming responsibility little by little is the key to developing self-control. The better children are equipped to deal with responsibility the faster they develop self-control.

A considerable amount of research has been done on self-control and self-management. The ability to postpone gratification has been associated with the attainment of success. Self-control is mainly a product of learning and can be greatly enhanced by the systematic use of operant conditioning principles.

In some studies the teaching of self-management has relied on children calculating and recording their own behavior. In one study, children were taught to tally their time spent on certain programs, to total accurately their correct and error responses, and to divide these frequencies by the time spent on a program in order to obtain performance rates (Lovett and Cosperson, 1969).[22] When children learn to correct, count, chart, and evaluate themselves, not only will the teacher be freed of a great deal of clerical work, but the pupils will benefit. Many aspects of self-recording are related to pupils' mathematics program and through these skills children are developing the basics of self-management. The teacher-manager must wean the student from his external support and teach him to rely more and more on his own resources to develop self-management. Many problem behaviors reflect self-control deficits, therefore, a more systematic feed-back along with positive reinforcement will increase self-control.

Children can be taught to specify their own objectives, to design some of their social and academic programs, to schedule their activities, and to evaluate their performances. The teacher's role would be to assist students in setting minimal social goals, insuring that the students understand that self-discipline is not designed to achieve conformity or nonconformity, but is a meaningful approach to developing a self-managed life style.

Bolstead and Johnson (1972) utilized procedures to enhance self-control in disruptive first- and second-grade children. Teachers identified forty disruptive children who were randomly assigned to three experimental and one control group. Treatment measures were implemented for thirty minutes daily for eight weeks and were divided into four experimental phases.

I. The first experimental phase consisted of external regulation of the subjects' behavior by reinforcement.

II. In the second experimental phase, two of the three experimental groups were trained in self-management procedures. The purpose of this phase was to train the subjects to evaluate their own behavior and dispense reinforcement to themselves based on their evaluation.

III. In the third experimental phase, one of the three experimental groups received points according to their own ratings.

IV. In the fourth experimental phase, treatment measures were terminated. [23]

Self-management research has developed gradually within the field of behavior modification. Israel Goldiamonds (1965) applied self-control procedures to personal behavior problems. [24] His research set forth a variety of problems that may be changed through self-modification and some of the basic operation involved in self-management. Goldiamonds' conception of self-control depended mainly on changing the factors that precipitated the desired or undesired behavior. Kanfer and Duerfeldt (1967) in their research found that teaching an individual to administer self-reinforcement can present the loss of a response that is no longer reinforced. [25] When one has been very dependent on externalrewards, self-management offers a means of accomplishing behavior change by self-given awards. Bandura determined that self-administered contingencies could be as potent as externally

administered rewards. [26] His conclusion was simply that behavior change could be achieved just as effectively by rewarding one-self as being rewarded by others.

Although a considerable amount of research is now being conducted and reported in such publications as Behavior Research, Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis and Behavior Therapy, there is still much to be explored regarding this topic.

Williams and Long state:

> In our opinion, self modification represents the wave of the future in behavior modification. Such personal domains as interpersonal relationships, academic achievement, sports skills, health menaces, sexual behaviors, and internal mood states are being affected by self-modification procedures. Although we have seen no published research on the subject, self-management procedures may also be quite useful in altering sex-role behavior. While sex-role stereotypes are presently being de-emphasized, most of us have already been conditioned to behave in "masculine" or "feminine" ways. Changes in these traditional behavior patterns do not come easily or painlessly, but self-management strategies may prove effective in acquiring non-sexist behaviors . . .
>
> Self-management has emerged as an important dimension of behavior modification; it could make quite an impact on society as a whole. The tone of self-management is consistent with our society's ethic of self-responsibility. We are assumed to be in control of that behavior. Thus, any orientation that increases the possibility of self-control ought to be highly acceptable. [27]

Individual students can employ self-management techniques using reinforcement contingencies. In this manner the teacher helps the individual to become a self-contingency manager who can increase the frequency and strength of the desired behavior. B. F. Skinner in his book Science and Human Behavior (1953) describes a number of ways people control their own behavior. Skinner maintains that one "controls himself precisely as he would control the behavior of anyone else - through manipulation of variables of which one thinks out the solution to a problem, chooses a course of action and acts on it. Therefore, it can be stated that we control our behavior primarily by controlling the conditions that determine our behavior. There are several ways this can be done. Some of the following examples have been adapted from Skinner (1954) and Sherman (1973). [28]

1. Physical Restraint. The controlling response may consist of imposing some physical restraint upon the response to be controlled. For example, the person may put his hands into his pockets to keep from fidgeting or biting his nails, or he may hold his nose underwater. A variation on this method consists of changing the situation; for example, a woman may leave most of her pocket money at home in order to limit her purchases at a sale.

2. Changing the stimulus. One may create or eliminate the occasion for a response by manipulating either an eliciting or a discriminative stimulus. For example, a person may eliminate distracting stimuli by closing doors, drawing curtains, closing his eyes, or putting cotton in his ears. Likewise, he may try to avoid overeating by putting a tempting box of candy out of sight. On the other hand, one may arrange discriminative stimuli to assure that appropriate behavior will be occasioned later at the proper time. For example, a woman may tie a string around her finger or write herself a note to remind herself to purchase bread when she goes out later in the day.

3. Depriving and satiating. A person can to some extent control his behavior by filling (or not filling) the needs which provide the underlying motivations. For example, a man who is planning to go to an all-you-can-eat restaurant in the evening may decide to have an early, light lunch so he will be maximally hungry by dinner time. Likewise, a student may intentionally sleep late in the morning of the day preceding an exam because he expects to study all night and does not want to be too tired.

4. Manipulating emotional conditions. A person may influence his emotional reactions by manipulating the conditions which evoke the appropriate emotions. For example, a man may reread an insulting letter just before answering it to generate emotional behavior which will enable him to write an effective response. Likewise, the extent of an emotional reaction may be reduced by delaying it, for example, by counting to ten before acting in anger. Undesired emotional behavior may also be prevented by manipulating stimuli which will evoke incompatible responses, for example, a child might bite his tongue to keep from laughing on a solemn occasion.

5. Using aversive stimulation. Sometimes we may control our behavior by arranging aversive consequences if we do not behave the way we wish. For example, by setting an alarm clock and placing it across the room, a person arranges for a strongly aversive stimulus from which he can escape only by awakening and getting out of bed to turn it off. Similarly, by announcing a behavioral resolution in the presence of other people, one is more likely to behave accordingly to avoid the unpleasant social disapproval which might be forthcoming if he breaks the resolution.

6. Drugs. Drugs are often used by individuals to control their emotions and make them more or less disposed to particular behaviors. For example, tranquilizers may be used to reduce the unpleasant feelings of anxiety and tension, appetizers may be used to stimulate hunger, alcohol may be used to reduce inhibitions, and narcotics may be used to generate euphoric behavior. Since the behavioral effects of particular drugs are often in part dependent upon the person's expectations, when drugs are used for specific purposes of self-control the behavioral consequences may be especially consistent with the person's intentions.

7. Arranging reward contingencies. An individual may attempt to control his behavior by arranging the contingencies of reinforcement so that positive rewards are made dependent upon the completion of desired patterns of behavior. For example, a student who wants to have lunch, play basketball, and visit his girlfriend, but has to complete a lengthy term paper, may decide that he

will eat after finishing one-third of the paper, play basketball after he has finished another third of the paper, and see his girlfriend after the paper is completed. By making the more probable behaviors (eating, playing basketball, visiting his girlfriend) contingent upon completion of the less probable behavior (writing) he increases the probability of the latter. The principle that more probable responses may be used to reinforce less probable ones was formulated by D. Premack (1965),[24] and has application in controlling the behavior of others as well in self-control.

8. Doing something else. A person may keep himself from performing undesired behavior by energetically engaging in some other, incompatible behavior. For example, one can try to avoid talking about an unpleasant topic. As another example, a person may avoid flinching when receiving an injection by stiffening up his body and holding still.

Self-management research is in a formative stage of development. As mentioned earlier, much of the research is published in modification journals. However, scientists have been so reinforced by the opportunity to publish and share with other scientists their findings that they have not given enough attention to interpreting and sharing these results and their implications with those parents, teachers, and school administrators who need the information but do not read these scientific journals. In the opinion of many teachers and parents, self-modification represents the focus of the future. Behaviors that will permit elementary school children to be less dependent on the continuous attention and support of the teacher become lasting and more permanent. Self-management is emerging as an important facet of behavior modification because society demands that we be held responsible for our own behavior.

A comprehensive review of the literature on theories and methods for self-regulation of behavior is presented in Kanfer and Phillips (1970).[30] However, most of the literature on self-control has focused on case studies rather than on more reliable and carefully controlled experiments. Punishment as well as rewards can be self-administered to suppress undesirable behavior. Although punishment can be a new dimension of behavior modification it has been used throughout previous generations. If a man is unfaithful to his wife, he buys her a present or a dozen red roses which he can ill afford. An example of contingency punishment would be a boy who says, "If I don't complete my

math homework each night this week, I will not go to the school basketball game Friday night," or a girl will decide, "If the teacher calls attention to my misbehavior today, even once, I will pass up lunch dessert today and the remainder of the week." Usually punishment is applied by individuals for a short term and therefore may lead to small steps to more desirable behavior.

The technique of thought suppression is very effective in developing self-control. It helps the individual to attack an urgent task and delay those that are occupying his mind. The process requires closing one's mind to pleasant and easy tasks which serve as distractions to more urgent ones. For example, applying thought suppression to the tasks of calling a friend to chat, going to a party, or reading the morning paper, can be replaced by a focus on activities requiring extended concentration such as studying for an examination, writing a term paper, or visiting the library to research historical documents. It may prove helpful at times to write down the tasks one wants to perform and give them priority, so that the urgent tasks will be put at the front or at least balanced with those that can be delayed.

Dollar and Miller (1950) suggested that if suppression is to become a strong and useful habit, it must be rewarded like any other habit.

> The suppression habit is rewarded in two ways, one immediate and the other delayed. The immediate rewards occur when attention is changed from the futile line of thought to that of the necessary tasks. As the futile responses drop out, the painful stimuli that they produce drop out and hence reward fixing attention on the useful effort. The person, so to say, stops worrying about what cannot be changed and starts acting on the problem that can be solved. The more remote reward occurs at the time of completion of the urgent task. The motivation which impelled this task disappears when the task is completed. Thus, completing the task is rewarded and all of the responses which made completing the task possible may be reinforced by a complex chain of generalized learned rewards.
>
> Learning theory suggests that this "spread" of the effects of the final reward to the first responses involved in suppression can be enhanced by rehearsing these first steps at the time one is experiencing the final reward. It can be helped by sentences like "I'm glad now that I stopped fretting about that disappointment and forced myself to start concentrating. I want to be sure to remember to do the same thing the next time I'm bothered by a hopeless problem." Some persons appear to learn the suppression habit so strongly that they can switch rapidly, with little loss of effort, from one task to another. They can, as it were, turn their minds off and on.

> Researchers have discovered many ways that teachers have used to identify concepts of what children think of themselves. A basic assumption is that children do in fact hold value-opinions of themselves. These value-opinions have to do with conditions they consider of great importance such as their abilities and acceptance by others. This self-concept is extremely important for teachers to perceive about each child. Also, equally important is to determine the accuracy of these self-concepts and the value each child places on his beliefs about himself. Teachers must also be skillful enough to identify undesirable behaviors that might signal negative opinions a child has of himself. One can detect self concept through observations, conversations with child and parents and through a variety of rating scales and self-tests. [31]

One such scale, "How I See Myself," students are asked to judge themselves on forty different items. Figure 8 shows a reproduction of this scale. (See scale at end of chapter).

## Managing Classroom Group Behavior

As our society moves toward more complex intergroup relationships as means of directing human living, it becomes increasingly important that each individual be able to make effective contributions in formulating and carrying out the policies of the groups to which he belongs. Democratic procedures are based on the belief that all will profit when the individual takes a responsible share in the decisions that affect his welfare. Benefits from democracy will be realized only when the individual knows how to take his responsible part. More and more the effectiveness of the individual is coming to be contingent upon the effectiveness of the groups through which he works. In turn, the strength the group depends upon the soundness of the emerging leadership that emanates from the individuals in it.

Classroom teachers committed to effective classroom management will do well to know the process of group dynamics. Group dynamics, known loosely as group process or group relations, unfortunately has had meanings that are frequently imprecise.

In the late forties and fifties many publications stressed the importance of the group in the development of the individual as well as of the many complex forces operating within the group. Researchers provided some new insights into group dynamics, including conclusions which have relevance and potential for improving classroom teaching of groups. Findings that indicated that the conduct and beliefs of children were regulated to a large extent by small cohesive groups setting their own standards and demands for its members. Those who study group dynamics are concerned with investigating the formation of and changes in the structures and functions of groups, and with discovering and formulating the principles that are the basis of group behavior.

The study of group dynamics attempts to explain the changes that occur within groups as a result of forces or conditions that influence groups as a whole. It is also concerned with investigating the processes by which behavior is modified by group experiences and it attempts to make clear why certain things happen in groups, why groups behave as they do, and why members of groups behave as they do, and to show what changes occur in groups over periods of time when numbers of persons interact in group situations.[32]

Peer group pressures and the resultant effects on individuals provide sufficient reasons for teachers to look to the group process for classroom behavior changes. The group process, when properly executed, provides the step by step method followed by a group when it is engaged in examining, investigating, and executing the problem-solving process. Too often, however, group dynamics supporters are more interested in developing the skills of group dynamics than the problems which the group has set for itself to solve. Knowing how to cooperate must be accompanied by understanding the group structure and organization within which one is working and by value judgments as to the importance of cooperation and one's obligation to work with others in a democratic process. Classroom teachers should try to develop more understanding of the process of group dynamics and the ways they can change group dynamics. This means working with groups and often within them rather than against them for students do develop "esprit de corps" for good or bad and become a social system that develops its own group standards. This is a great opportunity to change behaviors.

Cohesive groups become more difficult to penetrate for they maintain a stance of oneness and exert tremendous pressures on its members to agree and to conform. The influence that a cohesive group has on deviating members has been addressed by several researchers. Bogdonoff obtained evidence that there are physiological effects resulting from the act of deviance by an individual within the group.[33] Bany and Johnson point out that there are some sources of attraction that are not primarily directed toward the individuals in the group, but are due to the group's characteristics or properties.[34] Whether a child likes his class or class group depends upon the structure, the tasks, the goals, and the other children who make up the membership. The teacher is also included.

When these characteristics support the individual, group attractiveness is enhanced; in turn, group attractiveness increases cohesiveness.

Techniques for changing group behavior are necessary skills that classroom teachers must develop. Since all behavior is caused, the teacher must recognize that behavior is caused by a group problem. The problem must first be diagnosed. Therefore, an analysis is required. Some problems represent disturbances that are hard to identify and difficult to handle.

Most teachers would agree that there is a commonality of common class group problems. This author has generalized these common classroom problems below:

> Class groups, in most cases because of their size, need considerable help in working out suitable and satisfactory play arrangements.
>
> When there is a sharp cleavage in the group, the atmosphere may be tense and there may be actual quarreling and fighting between members in the group or between subgroups.
>
> Numerous internal and external factors tend to cause a group to be unable to make adoptive changes. Well integrated groups are better able to adjust to changes and repel external aggression than poorly integrated groups.
>
> Another group problem is one which occurs when an administrative rule is resisted by the group. They may resist the rule and become hostile as a group.
>
> Youngsters in a group will become involved emotionally when situations occur that they believe to be unfair.
>
> Lack of motivation or interest, or an attitude of dislike, for a particular area of the curriculum is catching, and class members may unify to resist assigned tasks in the area.

Many acts by individual students labeled "problem behavior" by teachers are caused by pressures stemming from the class group. A possible solution to these kinds of behavior problems is the use of group contingencies. An impressive amount of evidence has been compiled to support the premise that a greater change toward positive behavior is produced when students are permitted to participate in decision making than when these decisions are imposed upon the group by a teacher or higher administrators. Studies have indicated

that changes in some types of behavior may be brought about effectively by using the group as a medium of change. The notion is created that shared responsibility for change will be accepted by students. The pressures, therefore, come from the group, collectively and individually, and not from the authority figure. The group pressure is brought to bear as a source of influence upon individually nonconforming members. Such programs usually involve having rewards for the whole class made dependent upon the behavior of one child or more or perhaps the whole class.

Group influence upon individual behavior is of great importance to classroom teachers. If teachers focus all their attention on changing the individual behavior of students, and ignoring the effects or conduct of group behavior, there is difficulty in managing undesirable group behavior.

Management and Contingency Contracting

Classroom contingency contracting is an agreement between the teacher and the student stating that when a student has reached certain objectives, the student will be rewarded with an agree upon reward. Contingency is based on the principle of behavior which states that a desired kind of behavior is more likely to recur if it is followed by some kind of reward each time it occurs. The term contingent means that there is a before and after relationship between what the student does and what follows. To be effective the contract must offer a reward that is attractive to the student and that he could not get without performing certain tasks.

The basic rationale of contingency contracting is that "you may do something pleasant if you complete this task," or quite simply, put in Grandma's Law, "first clean your plate, then you may have your dessert." The rate at which behavior is acquired and changed is closely related to the nature of the consequence and the frequency and timing of the consequences or reward. A contingency is the type of consequence that is dependent upon and follows a response or, in specific cases, a task successfully completed. It may even

include a tangible or social award desired by the student. Of course, contingency management may be positive as that mentioned above or it may be negative. A negative contingency may involve a threat, is an undesirable consequence such as "you may join the others for the outside free period if you get out of your seat again without permission" (see figure 9).

There are many similarities between contingency management employing positive and negative reinforcement, and operant conditioning. However, there is a major difference. In contingency management, reinforcing conditions take the form of events or activities. In operant conditioning, a response is strengthened or weakened by the presentation of certain tangible stimuli which act as reinforcers or punishers.

Behavior is strengthened or weakened depending on its consequences. In contingency management, conditions are arranged so that the child gets to do something he wants to do following something you want him to do. Students should be motivated by a desire to succeed, not by the promise of a reward. But contingency contracting can be both positive and negative. Wherein contingency management can be an instrument to encourage and motivate children, it is transitional. The ultimate goal is self-motivation.

Children involved in a systematic contingency management program turn out to be happy, eager-to-learn children for whom learning itself may become one of the most rewarding experiences.

Educational objectives are accomplished by learning. Learning comes about through performance. In order to perform, any human being must be motivated. Therefore, the fundamental task of teachers is to determine educational objectives, motivate student performance, and guide student performance.

Motivation, as such, is nearly always present in any human being. Motivation can also be induced--that is artificially created. Induced motivation is most commonly created by some form of threat. Motivation, in this case,

results in performance by the individual to escape the threatened punishment. The consequences of the performance of a student under motivation may be the attainment of some highly desired goal and escape from a threatened punishment.

The consequences of an act performed under motivation are called the contingencies of this act. There are two types of contingencies: positive and negative contingencies. Negative contingencies are found under the conditions of induced motivation and threat of punishment. The person by his performance avoids some threatening situation. When the performance results in achieving something desirable to the performer, it is called a positive contingency. Contracts may be explicit (formally stated) or implicit (not formally expressed).

In order to be worthwhile, the terms of a contingency contract must offer as a reward an experience which is highly desirable and not obtainable outside the conditions of the contract. If the terms on the student's side of the contract lead to such experience, this will have one of two important effects: It will increase the probability that the student will perform the same activity in the future, or it will maintain in strength a behavior which is already strong. This will be true as long as the terms of the contract hold and as long as the characteristics of desirability and attainability of the experience do not change. If the experience offered becomes less desirable, as it often does with time, or if the same experience will become attainable in other (easier) ways, the experience will have lost its potential of having an effect on the student's performance. This characterization equates the experience offered in the contract with what is known as a reinforcer.

By definition, a reinforcer is characterized by what it does to an organism's behavior. The most important characteristic of a reinforcer is that when an individual does something, and his activity is followed by the reinforcer, the chances will increase that he will repeat that activity again. We can recognize a reinforcer by seeing what happens after its administration.

Figure 9. Effects of Consequence on Behavior

| Behavior | Billy consistantly laughs at answers to teachers given by others. | John is habitually late for class. | Mae a precocious and aggressive child converses with teacher in highly pitched voice. | Ann complains of a headache during Physical Education classes. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Consequence | Laughter is ignored. | He is highly complimented when he arrives on time. | Teacher always replies softly, slowly, pleasantly at a normal pace and level. | She is excused from P.E. and permitted to go to the nurses office to lie down. |
| Effects on behavior | Laughter is weakened and soon is eliminated. | Tendency toward tardiness is weakened. | Tension and high pitched voice tendency are weakened. | The tendency to complain of illness during P.E. is strengthened. |

The reinforcer has been traditionally referred to as a "reinforcing stimulus." We usually speak of reinforcing events, because not all reinforcers are easily characterized as stimuli and some reinforcers are more easily characterized as responses than as stimuli.

There are many different kinds of reinforcers. Some reinforcers are characterized by the fact that they make it possible for an organism to engage itself in some desired activity. A person is more likely to perform a relatively boring and uninteresting task if the payoff is the opportunity to do something more interesting and entertaining. These kinds of reinforcers, called reinforcing responses, are things one does, or likes to do.

Other reinforcers involve things that happen to someone. For example, on a cold day, a man may exert a great amount of energy to chop wood and create a fire (task) in the fireplace, especially if it is the only source of heat in the house. Reinforcing events of this case are called reinforcing stimuli.

All reinforcements have both responses and stimulus characteristics. These are the reinforcing stimuli. Those reinforcers that are characterized more easily by their response properties are referred to as reinforcing responses and events. The phrase "reinforcing event" may refer to reinforcers that can be characterized as stimuli or as responses.

Regardless of whether a reinforcer is best characterized by its stimulus or its response properties, the desirability as an otherwise unobtainable opportunity makes it a reinforcing event. A good way to find out whether a reinforcer is desirable to a student is to ask the student and by trying it as a reinforcer to see if it will make the performance it rewards recur.

Contingency contracting involves both high performance tasks and low performance tasks. The high performance tasks may be practicing trumpet music in the music room or completing jean decorations in the sewing room. These are enjoyable to the learner. However, low performance tasks must be

successfully completed first. These tasks are things like completing a math assignment or a written book report, or taking a weekly quiz in a given subject. Educators and parents have used this contracting technique for many years, but the newness to classroom contracting is that the terms and rewards are made explicit and are applied systematically.

Teachers should avoid making negative contingencies. These arrangements require that students first exhibit certain desirable behavior in order to avoid some type of punishment, such as "if you are quiet and work independently for the next forty minutes, I will not keep the class in after school" or "if you all bring in your homework tomorrow morning, I will not give the geography test tomorrow."

Homme gives some interesting and workable guidelines for writing a contract. These are highly recommended to insure effective classroom management.

1. The payoff should be immediate. This is especially important in the early stages of learning when the student is first becoming familiar with contracting.

2. The contract should provide frequent, small rewards for slight improvements in behavior, rather than one large reward for a great change in behavior. Thus it is better to give a student one piece of candy after completing two arithmetic problems than to reward him with an entire box of candy for doing twenty-five problems. This also is most important during the early stages of learning.

3. Both sides of the agreement should be of relatively equal weight. Hence, a student should not receive a trip to the zoo after working for a minute, nor should he be required to spell fifty words correctly for two minutes of free time.

4. The terms of the contract should be clear. A student should know for example, that he is required to do five arithmetic problems for a certain reward rather than do some problems for the reward.

5. Because of the different learning levels and learning rates of children, it is better to devise individual rather than group contracts.

6. The tasks should be short enough so that they can be completed in the allotted amount of time. [35]

Haring and Phillips state:

> If the teacher has determined in advance what responses he will enforce, the child's repertoire of responses will be effectively shaped. The sooner the child discovers the contingencies in his environment, the sooner his behavior will come under the control of the environment. By careful planning of terminal behaviors to be shaped and successive approximations to be reinforced, we greatly shorten the adaptation period in the child's acquisition of a social response repertoire, greatly decrease the number of irrelevant responses emitted, and thereby reduce the necessity to extinguish inappropriate behavior.[24]

Contracts should not be set in concrete. They are based on the teacher's assessment of what he/she thinks a child is capable of performing in a given period of time under certain situations. If the teacher discovers some weaknesses in the contract or excessive difficulties in the student's ability to perform, then the contract should be revised.

Contingency management is not bribery but a systematic procedure for insuring a consistent and fair approach to giving appropriate rewards for children's efforts to conduct themselves well academically and socially. Its strength lies in its positive method of changing behavior as opposed to punishment and the threats fo punishment. Quite often the child learns through punishment not to get caught the next time but also develops negative attitudes toward the one punishing him. The contingency approach in the classroom ultimately improves the self-directed behavior outside the classroom. When carefully and equitably applied, this technique is especially useful for children with poor self-images, low motivation, and those not considered in the mainstream. Such disadvantaged children respond well to immediate rewards and individual attention. They have often been denied a more structural, organized approach to daily life. Contingency management provides a structure that requires a degree of effort, and dedication, and perseverance before more pleasant activities can be enjoyed.

Figure 10 shows a contract between a teacher and a 14-year-old who starts but never finishes his reading assignments. The student is an above average student and reads fairly well. His problem is that he just hates to read.

Figure 10. FUNNY MONEY READING CONTRACT

Teacher: Miss Amy Smith Student: Tony Arcade

Student agrees to: Dollars:

1. Read two short stories a week and hand in written two-page summaries----------$10.00
2. Hand in the written assignments on each Friday by fourth period ----------$10.00

Failure to hand in assignments on time results in deduction. $3.00 for each day stories are late----------

Teacher agrees to:

1. Read summaries and give five-minute quiz each Friday afternoon.

Funny money dollars may be spent as earned or saved for larger purchases. It can be exchanged for the following:

1. Assist P.E. teacher with small children at free period-$ 5.00
2. Exempt one day from homeroom period----------10.00
3. Excused from reading period--free time one day----------10.00
4. 15 minutes class break for outside free play---------- 8.00
5. 30 minutes to sell candy for band benefit----------10.00
6. Exempt from weekly English quiz----------10.00
7. Other: _____

Signed _____ (Teacher) Signed _____ (Student)

One half hour is devoted daily to silent reading. In addition is a part of homework assignments. Listed below are ten rules the author has constructed which may serve as guidelines for teachers who wish to use contingency contracting.

Rules of Contingency Contracting

Rule 1. The contract payoff (reward) should be immediate. Initial contracts should demand a small bit of behavior, then a progress check to see whether the behavior was executed to the contractor's specifications. Then the reward should be offered immediately. It is important that the presentation of the reinforcer be contingent only on the adequate performance of the behavior and not on the passage of time.

Rule 2. Initial contracts should call for and reward small approximations. If the initial performance requested from the student is small, simple to perform approximation of the final performance desired, is too precise and too difficult for the student to perform, no amount of reward will help.

Rule 3. Reward frequently with small amounts. It is far more effective to give frequent, small reinforcements than a few large ones.

Rule 4. The contract should call for and reward acoomplishment rather than obedience. Rewards for accomplishments lead to independence. Rewards for obedience lead only to continued dependence on the person to whom the child learns to be obedient.

Rule 5. Reward the performance after it occurs. This sequence does not occur just once, twice, or three times a day; the task and the reinforcing events are broken down into small components, so that the sequence will occur dozens of times each day.

Rule 6. The contract must be fair. The terms of the contract on both sides of the agreement should be of equal weight. One must try to relate the amount of reward to the amount of performance.

Rule 7. The terms of the contract must be clear. The terms on both sides of the agreement must be clearly stated and understood by both sides.

Rule 8. The contract must be honest. An honest contract is one which (a) is carried out immediately, and (b) is carried out according to the terms as specified or stated in the contract.

Rule 9. The contract must be positive. The terms of the contract should contribute something to the child's experience, rather than take something away from him.

Rule 10. Contracting as a method must be used systematically. Contingency management works all the time, whether we are aware of it or not. A reinforcement following a bit of behavior will strengthen that behavior whether or not it occurs during school hours.

Modeling: A Technique for Behavior Change

Modeling is a behavioral strategy that teachers may use based on the premise that a child will imitate the behavior of others. Children acquire most social skills through imitation of and identification with examples of socially approved behaviors. Practically all learning can be acquired through observation and imitation. Simple reflections will recall that speech, hobbies, athletics, dancing, and social conversation all can be learned through the technique of imitation and modeling.

A model is an individual whose behavior serves as a cue that sets the occasion for an imitative response to be made by another person. In a classroom the teacher or other pupils may be setting the model. Children learn by observing each other as well as the teacher and other adult school personnel. There is little doubt that modeling significantly influences learning. Bandura and Walters conducted a series of experiments with modeling procedures. They were able to demonstrate that having a child simply view a film of a person behaving aggressively was directly related to the subsequent aggressive behavior of the child who had watched the film.[1] The use of modeling to change a vast amount of behaviors ranging from delay of gratification to aggression has been documented by numerous research projects.

Modeling can be a very effective method of acquiring desired classroom behavior. A teacher can tie a shoe or throw a ball and then have one child perform the task, and then have another child perform the same task. Several children can learn to tie a shoe through this modeling technique. Bandura (1965) also found that variables which seem particularly important include the sex, status, humanness, likability, and age of the model; the observed consequences of the model's behavior; the degree to which the child attends to the model; and the feedback the child receives when he imitates the model.

The ability to imitate or repeat what a model has said or done is not shared equally by all children. Some children exhibit a very limited ability

to imitate. Also, imitative behavior does not always immediately follow model presentation. For example, the child may observe an instructional TV program in mathematics where the teacher uses a ball, a book, and a building block to demonstrate the geometric shapes of round, rectangle, and square. The child may not imitate the teacher until several days or a week later when she will demonstrate before her parents, holding the objects, and mimicking the very voice pitch of the teacher.

Modeling can be used in role-playing in which the class members demonstrate behaviors that are desirable. It is unfortunate that the modeling procedure which is a proven behavior modifier has not been applied more systematically to influence behavior change in the classroom.

Much research has been conducted on the effects of modeling. Bandura found that modeling procedures may represent a more effective means than positive reinforcement of establishing new response patterns in children. Emotional reactions can also be transferred by witnessing the affective responses of others who are undergoing an emotional crisis. Barnwell and Sechrest (1965), for example, found that first-and third-grade students selected a task on which they observed their classmates receiving praise and avoided a task on which they witnessed other children receiving disapproval.[39] Modeling is most likely to occur when the observer sees the model obtain some type of reinforcer for emitting the behavior. The child receives a vicarious reinforcement from the reinforcement received by the model. Bandura and Walters (1963), in their experimental work, gave strong support to the acquiring of both adaptive and maladaptive behavior through modeling.[40] Bandura (1971) identified three basic ways in which observing someone else can influence changes in a person's behavior: (1) it teaches new patterns of behavior; (2) it eliminates fears and response inhibitions; and (3) it reinforces pre-existing behavior patterns.[41]

When a child has been exposed to systematic modeling procedures, he can then be taught to build and expand socially and intellectually useful behavior.

This can prove to be a unique method of teaching basic skills, appropriate sex roles, personal hygiene, and positive attitudes. It is therefore, important to study the effects of modeling in the behavior change and teaching process. Telling children that speaking at a moderate voice level is a characteristic to be admired, has little impact on them, but seeing this practiced by the teacher and the more admired children will bring the desired results. Modeling is very obvious in the behavior of young children and more subtle in the behavior of older ones.

Individualization of Instruction

Although this important topic takes on an entire chapter later in this text, it is singled out and surveyed here as one of the basic techniques for the modification of classroom behavior. Individualization of experiences by learners consists of a whole range of components. This includes programmed materials, independent study, personalized and individually prescribed materials, diagnostic teaching, and self-instructional modules. It makes use of individually used computer terminals, and the techniques and procedures of performance contracting.

When teachers treat students as individuals they have taken the first step in gaining students' trust and confidence. Teachers must recognize the variability among students in their classes and act with each learner individually. Very often teachers make the mistake of stereotyping, labeling, or categorizing young people to their detriment. Teachers support this action by standardized test results instead of using such tests as guides.

It is a gross error to interpret students' performances on achievement tests as indicators of certain characteristics or the lack of them. Tests simply point up different learning rates, different learning styles, different cultural orientation, and different past learning experiences.

From these basic understandings about individualized instruction and learning the teacher/manager can minimize classroom behavior problems by

prescribing sufficient learning tasks to keep each child busy and out of trouble with tasks he can master. The problem sets in when the child loses step with class teaching and everything is over his head. He becomes restless, bored, and unhappy. These conditions are breeding grounds for misbehavior.

In individualized instruction there are the advantages of "little successes." These are frequent and the teacher rewards the learner with a reinforcer, sometimes a smile, a "very good" or a pat on the back. This reassurance gives the child greater confidence to attempt greater challenges. Many teachers, using individualized instruction, indicate that the higher the degree of success and achievement under this approach to learning, the lower the degree of classroom behavior problems.

Each student needs respect for constructive qualities and attitudes that can and do contribute to overall classroom decorum. His self-respect is enhanced, and when his accomplishments are recognized, to him this is more important than knowledge itself. This option of working with children requires a higher level of student self-direction and a wider variety of instructional materials.

The key to independent study management is to be sure that each child is working at a level commensurate with his ability and at tasks, though challenging, that he can manage. Also, the tasks should be based on his interests and he should have reached the level of motivation to complete each task before any rewards or other tasks are assigned.

## A Look at Punishment

Punishment or aversive conditioning is an intervention technique used to discourage undesirable behavior. Often we see parents scolding, spanking, and showing their disapproval of their children. Teachers, too, overwhelmingly approve of some kinds of punishment to control behavior. This technique in the classroom consists of applying either physically or psychologically painful

stimuli or the withholding of pleasant stimuli whenever undesirable behavior occurs.

The research findings and the literature on the long term systematic use of punishment in behavior control or change is controversial and quite limited. Research results point to some possible generalizations. Some studies have reported limited short term successful use. O'Leary, Kaufman, Kass, and Drabman (1970) found success with gentle nonpublic reprimands. [42] Although some psychologist claim that the effects of punishment are temporary, Azrin and Holz (1966) found that punishment produced durable changes in behavior. [43] T. R. Risley (1968) found no evidence that punishment resulted in aggressive behavior. [44] The literature also suggests that there are many dangers and pitfalls in the use of punishment. Madsen, Becker, Thomas, Koser and Plager (1968) found that "sit down" commands given by the teacher to students out of their seats produced an increase in the frequency of out-of-seat behavior, thereby serving as reinformcement rather than deterrent. [45] Along the same line of results, researchers Thomas, Becker, and Armstrong (1968) found that high intensity disapproval in the form of grabbing, yelling, belittling, spanking, or shaking increased the frequency of classroom disorder as much as threefold when delivered in a setting in which positive reinforcement for competing responses was lacking. [46]

Basically, there are three rather distinct punishment methods. (1) One method is to administer aversive punishment such as spanking or some other type of physical punishment. (2) A response cost consists in removing a positive reinforcement that is particularly appealing, such as taking away a tag from a first grader or denying permission to participate in a favorite sport for older children. (3) The third method is referred to as time out, which involves isolating the child from all sources of reinforcement for a short period of time by having him/her sit away from class, outside of the classroom door, or in an empty room. There the child loses all opportunities for play, interaction with classmates, and attention from the teacher.

These three basic types of punishment which teachers may select hoping to influence child behavior change, are presented here in better known terms:

Deprivation - withdrawal of privileges, possessions, etc.

Physical - spanking, paddling, electric shocks, slapping, etc.

Psychological - ostracism, contempt, personal degradation, humiliation

These three types have been, to varying degrees, acceptable in the American public schools. However, our view is that, if punishment is to be used at all, the physical and psychological forms should be eliminated. The strongest argument against these two are that little evidence points to long range, permanent change of behavior. More ill side effects become apparent than good ones. Also, there is the tendency to deal it unequally, often in a state of anger, and often with unfounded threats. These, and often a delaying tactic, will not bring about the desired change.

Sometimes punishment techniques can be effectively coupled with reinforcement for appropriate behavior. Perhaps the most effective type of punishment consists of withholding or withdrawing positive reward contingencies when the undesirable behavior is performed. If the child is deprived of these privileges, he is more likely to want to do whatever is required to regain his rewards and positive contingencies.

Clarizo and Yelon (1974) states that punishment as a technique for behavioral modification is inadvisable:

1. Punishment does not eliminate the response; it merely slows down the rate at which the troublesome behaviors are omitted.

2. This technique serves notice to stop certain negative behaviors; it does not indicate what behaviors are appropriate in the situation.

3. Aggressive behaviors on the teacher's part may provide an undesirable model for the pupil.

4. The emotional side effects of punishment, such as fear, tenseness and withdrawal are maladaptive.

5. Punishment serves as a source of frustration which is

apt to elicit additional maladaptive behaviors.[47]

In the past decade, considerable research has been conducted on the effects of punishment on behavior. Researchers have found in general, that the extent to which punishment suppresses undesirable behavior depends on several factors. When punishment is administered is important. It should be done immediately after the undesired behavior and it should be done every time the undesired behavior occurs. It loses its effectiveness when delayed or administered infrequently or spasmodically. It should also be sufficiently intense and last over a long period enough to be felt. That is, it should be unpleasant or aversive. If an undesirable behavior has become habit, greater frequency and intensity of punishment is necessary. Many teachers make the mistake of believing that a threat of punishment will be sufficient to curve undesirable behavior. Threats have been found to be rather ineffectual in terminating undesirable behavior.

There are some inequities in the use of punishment. Students who are most often targets for punishment are usually those with very low self-esteem. Being spanked or otherwise physically punished only makes them feel more helpless and self-rejecting and, therefore, angry. Those teachers, parents, and social workers most opposed to aversive punishment insist that it is used discriminatorily. They say it is used more on inner-city children; more on blacks, Hispanics, and poor white children, and more on the younger and weaker children.

Many of the harmful side effects of punishment may be avoided if contractual arrangements between teachers and students clearly specify both desirable and undesirable behavior. As part of the management plan, the classroom teacher should make clear at the beginning of the year that certain behaviors are desirable and acceptable and that others will not be tolerated. Blackham and Silberman summarize ways to avoid undesirable side effects of punishment.

1. Use punishment infrequently and never as the only method for controlling or eliminating undesirable behavior.

2. Specify clearly the acceptable and unacceptable behavior and the consequences for each. When a child is punished, he or she should know the reasons for the punishment.

3. Punish the undesirable behavior as soon as it appears; do not wait until the behavior has run its course.

4. Provide desirable behavioral alternatives for the child.

5. While punishing the undesirable behavior, reinforce the behavior you wish to promote.

6. Be consistent in punishing behavior you wish to eliminate. Inconsistent punishment may make the undesirable behavior more durable. [13]

Teachers, if they use punishment, should be systematic and fair. The use of spanking, verbal reprimands, and other forms of correction should be judiciously applied. As an intervention technique it may be desirable if it is impossible to guide behavior effectively with positive reinforcements and extinction alone. However, threats of punishment that are not executed have little effect on terminating the undesirable behavior.

When using punishment techniques to change behavior, the classroom teacher must ensure that he/she is not providing a model of aggression, or reinforcing undesirable behavior, or delaying the punishment too long. Punishment should be used as a last resort by taking away rewards and by showing how these rewards can be recovered.

## Extinction and Shaping Techniques for Behavior Change

### Extinction

Extinction has proven to be an effective technique for changing undesirable behavior. When a behavior that has been conditioned by positive reinforcement is no longer reinforced, its rate of occurrence will decrease. That is, when we stop rewarding the behavior, it tends to extinguish itself. For example, when a child make unreasonable demands on the teacher by throwing a tantrum or crying excessively, the teacher should ignore it, thus withholding the positive reinforcement of attention. This is not an easy technique to use, for most behavior of this type has been strongly conditioned, therefore, it is extremely

difficult to stop. Once a teacher has decided to use this technique he/she must ignore the behavior totally, regardless of the frequency.

The teacher must be careful to see that the behavior will not be reinforced by other class members. This is often done by children giving attention to the problem child through laughter or other means. The teacher must also be cautioned that once attention is withdrawn from a child, the undesirable behavior will have the tendency to increase before it decreases. The teacher must not weaken during that period. If she can hold out, the undesirable behavior will decrease.

Shaping

Shaping is a deliberate set of procedures by which a desired behavior is evoked by reinforcing successive approximations of that behavior. It is a technique which has been useful in teaching new behaviors. When a child makes few appropriate responses that can be reinforced, it becomes necessary to encourage behavior that approximates the appropriate kind and then shape it through a series of approximations until the final appropriate behavior becomes conditioned. It is more difficult to teach a behavior which a child has rarely or never performed than change one which he has learned.

Blackham and Silberman use the example of an extremely shy five-uear-old child.[49] Token reinforcements such as praise and candy might be employed to please the child. In several steps the child would be reinforced for:

1. Looking at a group of children involved in some activity
2. standing within ten feet of a group of children
3. standing within five feet of a group of children
4. sitting with a group of children
5. participating in any activity with the group
6. imitating any action of a group member
7. making a one-word verbal response to any question of a group member
8. responding with a verbalization of three or more words to a group member

9. initiating a conversation with others

10. initiating any activity with another or a group

11. playing cooperatively and talking with a group involved in an activity

Shaping is a process in which a teacher identifies the "terminal behavior" and guides the child step by step toward the desired goal. The teacher progressively requires the child step by step toward the desired goal. The shaping should not occur too fast lest the earlier steps become extinct. Shaping procedures work because during shaping reinforcement not only strengthens the particular response that is reinforced but also increases the likelihood that a closer approximation will occur. Shaping can be employed in the development of motor skills, play skills, and any number of desirable activities.

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